OBSERVATIONS

ON THE SCHOOLS OF

GREAT BRITAIN, BELGIUM, AND GERMANY

—BY A—

COMMITTEE OF PITTSBURGH TEACHERS,

APPOINTED BY THE

CENTRAL BOARD OF EDUCATION,

MADE DURING A TOUR
UNDER THE AUSPICES OF

THE NATIONAL CIVIC FEDERATION
OF THE UNITED STATES.

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To the Central Board of Education, and Mr. Samuel Andrews, Superintendent of Schools, Pittsburgh, Pa.

GENTLEMEN:—

We wish to express our gratitude for the advantages of travel and education afforded us, and to our Central Board of Education, who so generously provided for our absence; to Mr. Mosely, who was the originator of the plan by which the American teachers were permitted to enjoy this extraordinary privilege; to the National Civic Federation, who so ably assisted him in his work; and to Mr. J. Bruce Ismay, President of the International Marine Company, who arranged for the voyage. Great preparations were made for our entertainment while we were in Great Britain, and every person interested in education was anxious to make our visit a success. We were, indeed, accorded an almost royal welcome. Our Ambassador, Mr. Whitelaw Reid, and Mrs. Reid, graciously received the American teachers at Dorchester House. We were entertained by Mr. Alfred Mosely and many other persons of note. The London Teachers' Association extended to us every courtesy, making us honorary members of their Association. Through the efforts of the Educational Committee of the London County Council, we were everywhere met by committees, who were delighted to receive the American teachers. We wish to express our thanks to these various committees for their untiring efforts in our behalf, which enabled us to visit the particular institutions in which we were most interested.

GREAT BRITAIN.

SCHOOL CONTROL.

1. The "Board of Education," is the central authority, entrusted by Parliament with the duty of supervising all branches of education throughout the whole of England.

2. The "London County Council" is the local authority responsible for all grades of education within the County of London. Practically the whole of the elementary education in London is under the Council's control. At the same time the Council works in close association with the Board of Education.

3. The "Education Committee" is composed of fifty members, of whom thirty-eight are members of the Council. The powers and duties of the Education Committee are distributed among eleven sub-committees. The Education Committee is open to the public and meets every Wednesday at the County Hall.

All matters relating to the exercise of the Council's powers under the Education Acts, except the power of raising taxes or borrowing money, stand referred by statute to the Education Committee; and the Council before exercising any such powers, unless in its opinion the matter is urgent, receives and considers the report of the Education Committee with respect to the matter in question. The Council may delegate to the Education Committee any of its powers under the Education Acts except its power of raising taxes or borrowing money.

In the management of its own secondary schools, training colleges, technical institutes and schools of art, the Education Committee is assisted by advisory or local sub-committees. The Council also appoints representatives to serve upon the governing bodies of all schools and institutions to which it makes grants.

The Council spends annually, in round figures, five and a half millions, sterling, on education; £4,500,000 on elementary schools, and £1,000,000 on higher schools. The receipts amount

to £1,750,000; the rest of the cost falls on the tax payer. The education tax is 19d. per pound; a penny rate produces about £185,000.

So far as the actual management of the schools is concerned, there is still a distinction between schools provided by the local education authority—in London, the County Council—and those not so provided; but the whole duty of maintaining the work of instruction in the schools, not including equipment, is laid upon the local authority, and the same scale of salaries, and in most cases the same regulations, are in force in both types of schools. The schools that were formerly known as the "voluntary" schools are now known as "non-provided" schools, since the buildings are provided by persons other than the local authority.

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION AND ETHICS.

Religious instruction is part of the curriculum of each school. One-half hour a day is devoted to it. The Committee arranges a plan of Scripture instruction for each year of the pupils' school course. Certain parts must be memorized, and certain chapters of the Bible are read to each grade each morning. Any pupil whose parents object to his participating in this period of religious instruction may devote the time to secular subjects.

Moral instruction, or ethics, forms an important part of the curriculum of every elementary school. Such instruction is given mostly incidentally, and as fitting opportunity arises in the ordinary routine of lessons. We met but one Head Mistress who believed in the formal teaching of ethics. The instruction is especially directed to the inculcation of courage, truthfulness, cleanliness of mind, body and speech, the love of fair play, consideration and respect for others, gentleness to the weaker, kindness to animals, self-control and temperance, self-denial, love of one's country, and appreciation of nature and art. The teaching is brought home to the children by reference to their actual surroundings in town or country, and is illustrated as vividly as possible by stories, poems, quotations, proverbs, and examples drawn from history and biography. The object of this instruction is the formation of character and habits of life and thought, and an appeal is made to the feelings and the personalities of the children. The natural moral responsiveness of the

child must be stirred or else no moral instruction will be likely to be fruitful.

In non-provided schools religious instruction may be and usually is of a denominational character. In the schools provided by the Council the Bible is read, and there are given such explanations and such instruction therefrom in the principles of the Christian religion and of morality as are suited to the capacities of children, provided always that in such explanations and instruction the provisions of the Elementary Education Act relative to undenominational instruction and conscience are strictly observed, both in letter and spirit, and that no attempt is made in any such schools to attach children to any particular denomination.

ATTENDANCE AND CLASSIFICATION.

In London there are now 543 provided or London County Schools, with an accommodation for 603,952 children, and an average attendance of 505,698; and 371 non-provided schools, with accommodations for 159,623, and an average attendance of 145,163. In a city so large as London there are naturally vast divergences between the special requirements of the different districts, and the class and type of school varies accordingly. The more advanced type of instruction is provided in higher elementary and higher grade schools, which are recruited from the most competent pupils from the lower elementary schools.

The age of compulsory attendance at an elementary school is from 5 to 14, although exemption can be obtained on certain conditions after the age of 12. Children under 5, but over 3, are admitted. The enforcement of school attendance employs a large body of officers. The average attendance is, however, maintained at 88.9 per cent. of the average roll, with relatively few references to the magistrate. The 11.1 per cent. absent includes scholars absent through illness, etc.

On first attending school a child is enrolled in the infant department. About the age of 7 he is promoted to the senior department. Senior departments are organized as for boys only and for girls only, or else as mixed departments. Sometimes there is a junior mixed department, with senior departments for boys only and for girls only. As a rule a department of a school does not accommodate more than 350 children. There are, how-

ever, important exceptions. Each school is composed of three departments, Infant Department, Girls' Seniors, and Boys' Seniors. It is illegal for pupils to remain in elementary schools beyond the school year in which they attain the age of 15. In higher elementary and higher grade schools they are expected to remain until that age.

Much attention has been given to medical inspection, a comprehensive system having already been established before the passing of the Education Act, 1907, which imposes such inspection as a statutory duty upon local authorities.

The names of children who are not provided with shoes, or not sufficiently clothed, and who are in attendance at the schools, are included in the list of "necessitous" children, submitted to the Children's Care Committee. The Committee, if satisfied as to the circumstances of the parents, endeavors to arrange for the provision of shoes or clothing, either from articles supplied by charitable persons to the schools, or from funds supplied locally.

There is usually an independent head teacher for each department, but, as an experiment, the Council has recently founded two large mixed schools under one head master with head assistants in charge of the senior mixed, junior mixed and infant departments. The object of this type of organization is to secure greater coördination of the work of different departments.

SCHOOL BUILDINGS.

When one beholds the venerable university buildings of Oxford—"New College" is five hundred years old—one is attracted by the architectural beauty of the massive structures dating from mediaeval times. This is a striking contrast to the austere school buildings of modern England. The schools of Great Britain, particularly the elementary schools, do not occupy so prominent a place before the public as do the common schools of America. We, at times, sacrifice utility to architectural effects; yet this is preferable to the entire absence of decorative detail in most English schools, which is depressing. Frequently the site chosen is off from the main street, and one is not aware of the proximity of a school until one sees a gateway with the words "Boys"—"Girls" printed over it in large letters. In

some cases, when the street is noisy, this seclusion has its advantages.

The school building, a four story structure, is situated in the centre of a large open space. This space on each side of the building is devoted to playgrounds, one for the boys and one for the girls. These are separated by a high wooden fence. Surrounding the girls' playground are the buildings devoted to manual training and domestic science, if the school happens to be an industrial training center. At times, the cooking department is in the main building. There is an entrance at each end of the building, and also one opening into the large assembly room on the ground floor. The boys have a separate exit to their playground. also.

Stone stairways, steep and dark, with many turnings, lead to the corridors, which have no outside light. A strange arrangement is that a number of the rooms open into one another, having no direct exit to the corridors. The classrooms are usually unilaterally lighted with a sufficient number of windows, which reach to the ceiling. There is always enough space around the building to admit adequate light.

The size of rooms varies greatly, especially in the older schools, measuring at the most 25x28 feet. In the most modern buildings no room in a senior department is constructed to accommodate more than 40 children, and none in an infant department for more than 48. Classes of 50 pupils and over occupy these rooms frequently, though the legal average in an elementary school is forty-five pupils to each teacher. The average number of children per class teacher, throughout the service, has been steadily decreasing of late years, and is now 45.8 for London County Council, and 38.8 for non-provided schools. We were told that there is a movement on foot to lower the average.

We saw few wardrobes. Generally pupils' wraps were hung on racks provided for the purpose in the corridors. The sanitary arrangements are primitive and inadequate. They do not tend to promote correct hygenic conditions. The heating and ventilating system is very simple. In a few schools steam heating is used; but mostly the old fashioned stove with coal scuttle seemed to be the approved method of supplying warmth. The ventilating is done by opening the windows. Even on cold days the windows are all lowered at least six inches, so that the

temperature of the rooms is rarely more than 55 degrees, and 60 degrees is considered decidedly warm. Thus the school room has a sufficient supply of fresh air; neither the children nor the teachers seem to be affected by the currents of air blowing directly upon them. The high strung American pupil would not, and could not, be comfortable under these conditions. To be sure, we observed that the English child wears warmer and heavier clothing than the American children.

In most buildings the plasterless brick walls of the classrooms and assembly halls are simply painted, yet they are beautified with pictures of prominent persons, copies of the best paintings and other pictures relating to the subjects taught. This pictorial decoration plan forms an important factor in cultivating appreciation of the best in art.

Many schools contain at least two assembly halls, one for the primary grade, and one on the second floor for the juniors and seniors. The halls are used for physical training, recreation during inclement weather, and general exercises of all kinds. Those for the young children are decorated with suitable pictures and posters. Growing plants, an aquarium, cages containing doves, birds, rabbits, sometimes squirrels, and any household pets obtainable, make this large room a storehouse of interest to the little ones. A piano adds charm to the work done here. Around the walls of the assembly hall devoted to the advanced pupils, is arranged a museum containing many interesting and unusual specimens, which are collected with a special view to aiding and promoting investigation in connection with the daily lessons. This room is also equipped with a piano. The music lesson is often given here, to teach ensemble work.

In the teaching of music not so much theory is required but more attention is given to proper breathing and the correct use of the voice, thereby producing a pleasing quality. The music is written in a simpler form than ours, only two-part singing being taught. Pretty songs which correlate with their lessons are learned. Much attention is given to the folk song.

Old English games, arranged both for the infants and seniors, are taught on an elaborate scale in these halls. The best work of the pupils in all subjects of instruction, especially drawing, is exhibited here, and we were told that the display is a great incentive to improvement. The money for these pictures is

provided by the London County Council. It is apportioned according to the number of pupils attending each school, one shilling being allowed for each pupil. This feature of English school equipment might well be followed by our American schools, as we are to a great extent lacking in this cultural equipment.

Most of the buildings have inferior equipment in regard to furniture and blackboards. The blackboard space consists of an easel about 4 by 5 feet, and another of the same dimensions fixed to the wall facing the class. This is in strange contrast to our schools, where the blackboards run around each room. Double desks are used, although some are found that accommodate three, four and even five pupils. Sometimes three pupils are crowded into one seat in the lower grades. These seats are arranged upon gradually elevated platforms so that the last tier of seats is very much higher than the first. The teachers do not like this arrangement, but it is a difficult matter to have these details changed. The floors are all of hard wood. In some schools the practice of oiling them is still in vogue.

We saw no protection against fire in any school, but were informed that outside iron stairways were ordered for some of the buildings. The new school buildings in London, especially the elementary schools, are not much of an improvement over the old ones.

School buildings are used exclusively for the education of the pupils attending them, unless by special permission of the London County Council. No political meetings can be held in school houses, nor can any political business whatsoever be transacted therein. School houses may, however, be used as polling places, after obtaining the special permission of the London County Council.

The matter of pauses and recesses is receiving much attention in the English school. The daily program is being interrupted with many rest periods, in order to guard against mental fatigue. The whole school has recess on the playgrounds. Besides that, each class is taken to the assembly hall each session for a short gymnastic exercise or game.

PLAYGROUNDS.

It is indeed strange to think how long one of the most important features of the child's life in school has been neglected—

that of providing a place for the child to play. It is only now that we are awakening to the necessity and the importance of playgrounds.

The oldest school building, though it is situated in the most congested district, has at least one playground and usually two—one for the boys and one for the girls. The English pupil plays his games in a stone or gravel yard surrounded by a high stone wall. This is not a beautifully kept lawn upon which no child is allowed to walk, as is the case with some of our schools. A large shed on one side of the playground provides shelter in case of inclement or hot weather and is also used for physical training. The grounds are open from eight o'clock until five, and may be used before and after school. During the recess periods an instructor teaches and supervises the games part of the time only, as it is considered best to have the children organize and direct their own games.

INSPECTION.

The actual daily work of the school, in respect to both instruction and discipline, is under the oversight of inspectors. Teachers of exceptional ability and qualifications are eligible for appointment as inspectors of schools. In that capacity they are required to communicate, personally or in writing, with the local authority with reference to matters requiring attention. They are to make an annual inspection of the schools where the work is not considered satisfactory. A formal inspection is not required in the schools where the work is regarded as satisfactory. The inspector is expected to give notice of a formal visit. When he visits schools not with the intention of making a formal visit, but with the intention of spending a considerable time there, he should, when possible, notify the head master of his intended visit.

Should a teacher have any well-grounded cause of complaint against his head master, he may submit a statement of his case to the inspector, who, after due inquiry, if necessary refers it to the local authorities for consideration. Should any teacher feel himself aggrieved by the conduct of the inspector, he may make his appeal through the head master, and it will receive attention from the local authority. If the complaint should affect both the head master and the inspector, the teacher may then submit

his case in writing to the local authority, which will act upon the complaint.

The sub-teachers are oppointed by the local authority, upon the recommendation of the inspectors, who select them by competitive examination. The inspectors confer with the head masters and their assistants as to the character and general suitability of the candidates whom they have selected, and they are prohibited from recommending candidates whom the head masters disapprove of, or to whom the teachers entertain a reasonable objection. The sub-teachers are appointed in regular order to fill any vacancy caused in the regular corps of teachers by death or otherwise.

In the County of London there are 20,000 teachers engaged in some 3,000 schools, or departments of schools, of all kinds. The teachers in the non-provided schools are appointed by the private managers, subject to the consent of the Council, but they are paid out of the public taxes.

TEACHERS.

Preparation.

The Board of Education recognizes the following grades of teachers in public elementary schools, viz: Pupil-Teachers, Provisional Assistant Teachers, Student-Teachers, Uncertificated Teachers, and Certificated Teachers. In certain circumstances persons without the usual qualifications may be engaged to assist in public elementary schools as Supplementary Teachers. The Board also recognizes as Bursars, under the conditions mentioned later, scholars in secondary schools who intend to become elementary school teachers.

Pupil-Teachers are boys and girls over 16 years of age and under 18 years of age who receive (*a*) training in teaching in a public elementary school, together with (*b*) suitable instruction in preparation for an examination by which they may become qualified for recognition as teachers in a higher capacity. Pupil-Teachers who have not passed their examination before the end of their period of recognition as such, may be recognized for one year from that date as Provisional Assistant Teachers. They will thus be able to continue to teach and to earn a salary during that year while preparing for their examination.

A Student-Teacher is a young person who is recommended

by a local educational authority for approval by the Board as part of the staff of a public elementary school, and who either has been a Bursar recognized by the Board, or has regularly attended a recognized secondary school for two years. It has already been pointed out that a Bursar, unlike a Pupil-Teacher, does not do any teaching in a public elementary school; but now, when he becomes a Student-Teacher, the boy who was formerly a Bursar, or who after two years in a secondary school wants to become an elementary teacher, gets an opportunity of actual experience in teaching in an elementary school, and also receives a salary.

Uncertificated Teachers are Pupil-Teachers and others, not less than 18 years of age, who have passed the preliminary examination for the elementary school teachers' certificate, or one of the alternative examinations named in Note D, but have not had a course of training in a training college, because of the scarcity of such colleges, or because of the necessity for earning a salary.

Certificated Teachers must have passed the final examination for students in training colleges, or the certificate examination of the Board of Education, or must possess one of the other qualifications mentioned in Note E of the chart. Persons who desire to substitute any examination other than the certificate examination of the Board of Education, or one of the examinations for students in training colleges, should apply to the Board either directly or through the local education authority of the district in which they desire to teach, and should forward the certificate or certificates that they wish to offer as a substitute.

Supplementary Teachers are suitable women, over 18 years of age, who are specially approved by His Majesty's Inspector, for their capacity in teaching. Each must have a satisfactory medical certificate in a form approved by the Board.

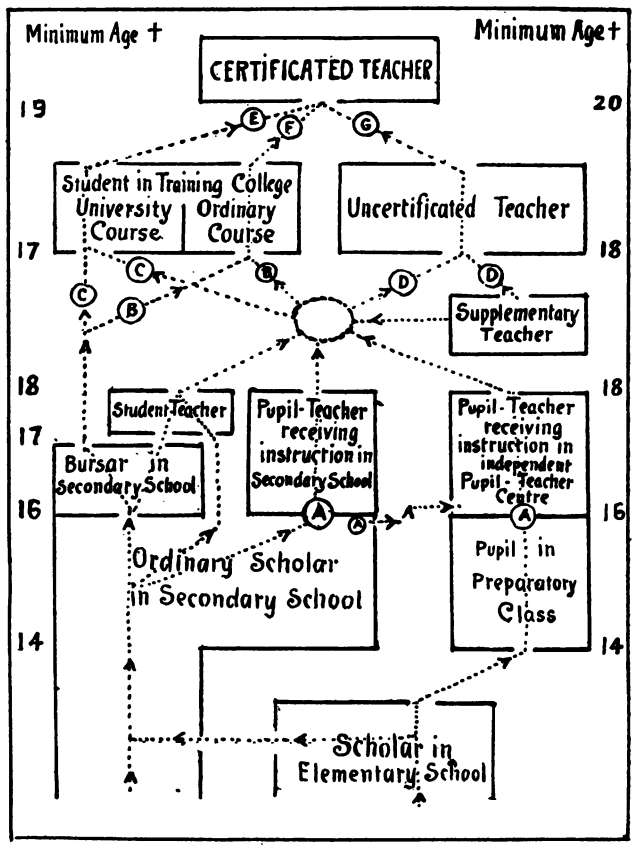
Bursars are boys or girls recommended by the Local Education Authority, who intend to become elementary school teachers, and who are attending full time at a recognized secondary school, and who require financial assistance in order to continue their education. The chief distinction between a Pupil-Teacher and a Bursar is that while a Pupil-Teacher divides his time between being taught in a Center and teaching in a public elementary school, a Bursar does not during his year of recognition do any

teaching in an elementary school, but spends the whole year being taught at a secondary school; his practical experience in the art of teaching comes later.

Teachers in public elementary schools are not appointed by the national Board of Education but by the local education authority, and the salaries are paid by this same authority. The amounts of salary vary in different localities. A scale of salaries may be seen upon another page.

It will be seen from the preceding statements that persons may enter the elementary teaching profession at any one of the various stages; for example, it is not necessary that a person should have served for a period as a Pupil-Teacher in order to be eligible for admission to a training college or for recognition as an Uncertificated Teacher. The following diagram is intended to represent the various ways in which a person may proceed through the different stages of preparation for the teaching profession. The rectangles represent the status of the teacher at the various stages in his or her career; the dotted lines represent the progress of a teacher through these stages; the circles represent the examinations that he or she has to pass in this process.

DIAGRAM



Ⓐ = One of the Examinations mentioned in Appendix A
Ⓑ = " " " B
Ⓒ = " " " C
Ⓓ = " " " D
Ⓔ = An Approved Final Examination conducted wholly or partly by a University.
Ⓕ The Board's Final Examination of Students in Training Colleges.
Ⓖ The Board's Certificate Examination.

† The minimum age at which intending teachers passing through a Secondary School course followed by Student-Teachership, or going direct to a Training College, can pass each stage is shown on the left hand side; for those passing through the Pupil-Teacher course it is shown on the right hand side.

We do not give the entire list of examinations qualifying candidates for the various certificates, giving license to teach, or admitting to the next higher school.

NOTE A. There are nine qualifying examinations in the official list, any one of which qualifies candidates for pupil-teachers. Here are two: the lower certificate of the Oxford and Cambridge Schools Examination Board; the Board's examination of candidates for recognition as Pupil-Teachers.

NOTE B. The official list gives a choice of fourteen examinations; such as, the preliminary examination for the elementary school teachers' certificate, or the King's Scholarship Examination, or the London University Matriculation Examination.

NOTE C. There are nine examinations accepted as qualifying candidates for admission to a training college, where they prepare for a later examination that is a recognized step toward a university degree. The first of the nine is "The preliminary examination for the elementary school teachers' certificate," in which the candidate must secure "distinction in English, history, geography, elementary mathematics, elementary science, and two languages, one of which must be either Greek, Latin, French or German."

NOTE D. Any one of the thirty-four qualifications given in the official list will entitle the holder to recognition as an uncertificated teacher The following sample qualifications give an idea of the standard: (1) The candidate must either have passed the King's Scholarship examination, or the preliminary examination for the elementary school teachers' certificate, held by the Board of Education. (2) The candidate must be not less than twenty-one years of age, have served for not less than five years in a Poor Law School, be certified in the efficiency grade, and be favorably reported on by an inspector. (3) The candidate must be not less than eighteen years of age and have passed the London University matriculation examination, whether in its ordinary form or in the form of the school leaving certificate examination.

While most of the young teachers in the elementary school of the large cities of England are well prepared for their work, we were told many times that the only requirements for a teacher were that the person should be eighteen years of age and have a vaccination certificate. However, after 1914 no one will be permitted to teach in Scotland who has not had at least one year in a recognized training school.

When a young man enters a training school he makes a written promise that he will follow the profession for at least ten years, that is, seven years after graduation. The period is two years less for a young woman. If for any reason the man

does not continue in the profession he is obliged to refund a pro rata portion of the expense of his education.

In London there are 15,100 Certificated Teachers, of which about 4,700 are men and about 10,400 are women. Of these about 11,000 (4,000 men and 7,000 women) have been trained, i. e., have been through a course at a training college. In non-provided schools that receive no support from the taxes, there are about 1,200 teachers who are not certificated. There are about twice as many men teachers in the higher elementary and secondary schools as women; the proportion is reversed in the elementary schools.

Tenure of Office.

The teachers of Great Britain are elected by the Education Committee of Councils. The election is not for a year, nor for five years, but until the teacher himself asks to be transferred to another school, or the Council decides that for the best interests of the school, that should be done. If the head master desires to have an assistant replaced by another he must present reasons therefor to the Education Committee, giving the teacher in question a month's warning for the purpose of preparing a defense. One teacher was asked upon what grounds teachers might be removed from the roll, and he said that he hardly knew of a case but that any one who had been convicted of felony would not be tolerated in the schools; showing plainly that only for a very serious offense would a teacher lose his position. The National Union of Teachers and the London Teachers' Association have done much to increase the stability of the teachers' position, knowing that no teacher can do his best work with a yearly election hanging over his head.

Teachers' Salaries.

In considering the salaries, it must not be forgotten that the cost of living is considerably higher in the United States than in Great Britain. Bearing this in mind we shall see that the salaries in Edinburgh and in some other cities compare very favorably with ours. In other districts, however, false economy has resulted in the employment of a very inferior teaching staff. The scale of salaries in a few districts is here appended:

EDINBURG.

Higher Grade Schools.

Head Master	$2,500—$3,000
Men Teachers	1,250— 1,500
Women Teachers	750— 1,000
Men Assistants	650— 1,000
Women Assistants	500— 800

Elementary Schools.

Head Master	$1,600—$2,000
Infant Mistress	650— 875
First Assistant	850— 1,000
Men Assistants	650— 1,000
Women Assistants	500— 800

LINCOLN.

Maximum for Men	$ 700
Maximum for Women	575

MANCHESTER.

Masters	$ 600—$ 875
Mistresses	400— 550

Extra payments to Head Teachers—for the first 300 scholars in average attendance, $1 per unit; for the next 100, $0.75 per unit; for each unit over 400 pupils, $0.50. $50 per annum if the school obtains the full grant, and $25 per annum if a lower grant. So, in a school of 600 pupils the salary would be about $1,400 for the Head Master, but much lower for the Head Mistress. There is a very unjust discrimination against women teachers in the matter of salaries, especially in the case of the Head Mistress of Infant Schools.

Teachers who have obtained a degree in a university receive the highest salary, college trained teachers next, and certificated teachers third in rank. In this way teachers are encouraged to obtain the best education possible.

LONDON.

Higher Elementary.

Head Master	$2,000—$2,500
Head Mistress	1,500— 2,000
Assistant Master	550— 1,050
Assistant Mistress	500— 800

Elementary Schools.

Head Master	$ 750—$2,000
Head Mistress	650— 1,500
Assistant Master	500— 1,000
Assistant Mistress	450— 750

Teachers in difficult neighborhoods receive a special allowance of $37.50 per year. The sum of $12,000,000 per year is paid for salaries in the London elementary schools alone.

On the average a teacher spends twenty years in the service before being promoted to a head teachership. Some eighty head teacherships fall vacant every year, and appointments to the vacancies are almost without exception from within the ranks.

There is one point in particular on which the British schools show a kindness and consideration worthy of imitation. In no district does a teacher lose his salary through absence from illness for at least one month. In some districts a doctor's certificate is required after thirty days' absence. In some districts full salary is paid for two months, half salary for the next two, after which salary ceases until return to duty. In Northumberland three months' absence with full salary is allowed to a teacher who has taught ten years; one month to a teacher who has taught less than ten years. In London 1,080 days are allowed on full pay to those who have taught 45 years; those who have taught under twenty years may be absent on full pay for 90 days during the three years preceding the last absence; between twenty and thirty years, 110 days are allowed in three years, over thirty years, 130 days; holidays are not included. An absence prolonged beyond the allotted time is dealt with especially by the Educational Committee, after consultation with the medical officer.

PENSIONS.

The annual amount of pensions paid out by the government is $144,500; the disablement disbursements are $119,000; and the annuities $65,550, making a total of $329,050 per year. Men teachers retire at 65 years of age and women at 63 years, on a pension of about $100 to $200 per year. This is found totally inadequate, as over half of the teachers retired each year must call upon the various societies of the Teachers' Associations for help.

The London Teachers' Association has a Mutual Insurance Fund, which pays a death benefit of $500. To join this insurance fund a teacher must be a member of the London Teachers' Association and must be under 35 years of age.

The National Union of Teachers has a Legal Assistance Fund, which spent last year $30,355 for its members; a Benevolent and Orphan Fund, which had an income last year of $110,000, all from subscriptions, paying out about $85,000; the Teachers' Provident Society which has total funds of $1,250,000, comprising a sick fund paying from $1.25 to $10 per week; and a Life Assurance and Endowment Branch, and annuities paying from $0.67 per week to $250 per year. These societies are all kept up by the teachers themselves. In addition to this there is the Westmacott Bequest. By will an annual sum is available for the benefit of members of the Teachers' Guild who are female teachers in high schools and other schools for the higher education of girls, and is to be applied in bestowing allowance or temporary pensions in cases of illness or overwork or for needful relaxation.

INFANT SCHOOLS.

The Infant Schools provide instruction for children between the ages of three and seven. This department usually occupies the ground floor of the elementary school. There is a Head Mistress who has sole charge of the work. Female teachers only are employed. For a year or more the children have somewhat of a kindergarten training, although they have very little occupation material supplied and do not have the freedom of the kindergarten. Many of these schools might better be named day nurseries, as the mothers, as their way to work, leave their three-year-old children at the school.

The teachers spend much time in the teaching of songs and poems or "repetition," as it is called, throughout the English schools. They strive to get an easy tone, clear articulation and good modulation. This is a decided feature of "repetition" in all grades.

Observation lessons form part of the daily program, especially in connection with nature study. The teacher talks to the children and encourages them to talk to her and ask questions. Ample material is supplied for the study of this subject, even in

the most crowded parts of the city. By requiring the drawing of nearly all suitable objects, including flowers, leaves, twigs, etc., the eyes, hands, and fingers are all employed in free occupation.

Story-telling is made an important factor in these schools. The children are encouraged to tell what they have heard, in simple language of their own. Both poems and stories, after becoming familiar, are illustrated. The younger children use boards, 12 bv 18 inches in size, made especially for the purpose, on which they draw with crayon, while the older ones use paper and crayon. No slates are used. Clay is also used in this illustration work by all classes in infants schools.

Besides the long recess, the classes are taken several times during the session to the assembly hall for physical exercises, which take the form of games involving free arm movement, singing, and breathing exercises. This change from the schoolroom is very beneficial. We appreciate the necessity of it when we consider that these little ones are in school from nine in the morning until four in the afternoon, with two hours intermission at noon.

After the child is five years old, he is classed as an older infant and the above work is supplemented by short lessons in drawing, reading, writing, and number work.

One of the principal methods of teaching reading, the Dale system, is much like our own Gordon system. The English books designed for use in the infant schools are not so much simplified as ours. but are made more attractive by using different colored letters. The vowels are printed in red, the voiced consonants in black and the voiceless consonants in blue; silent letters are always yellow. The teachers and books rather encourage the use of long words.

The teaching of writing is simply to secure legibility, no special method being used.

More arithmetic is taught than in our schools; much written work is done.

In drawing not so much is required as in our schools. Most of the lessons consist of illustrating and drawing from objects. We saw neither scissors nor paint used in the infant schools we visited.

Instruction in sewing and knitting is given to the older infants, but care is taken to avoid fine work that might injure the eyes.

In an infant school where we found the pupils particularly enthusiastic and the subjects presented in a wide-awake manner, we asked the Head Mistress the reason for this difference. She frankly told us she was using American methods, having been a subscriber to our best primary educational publication for many years. This Head Mistress showed a friendly, sympathetic interest toward her pupils that we found lacking in so many otherwise excellent teachers.

At seven years of age, in most of the infant schools, the boys and girls are separated for the remainder of the course. The age depends largely upon the proficiency of the pupil and the local circumstances. The work of Standard No. 1, the beginning of the junior work, is begun after separation. Though the English child begins school at so tender an age, we found, especially in the infant department, no greater advancement than in our pupils of the same grade.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

CURRICULUM.

The subjects of instruction, in addition to those usually found in public elementary schools, include elementary science, nature study, domestic economy, manual training, physical exercises, organized games, swimming, and in certain cases, modern languages.

Increasing attention is now being given in the schools to physical exercises and organized games, and also to visits to museums and places of educational interest, school journeys, and other subjects tending to improve the physique or stimulate a wider range of interest in the pupils. The tendency of the last few years has been to diminish the number of examinations imposed on the schools, and to give more freedom to teachers in framing their curricula.

ENGLISH.

The teaching of English in the Elementary Schools aims simply at enabling the pupils to understand, enjoy, and use good English, oral and written, of moderate difficulty. The teachers

insist that the pupils make all oral communications in good English, well pronounced, and if need be, in complete grammatical form.

The systematic instruction in English begins with speech; our cousins believe that spoken English is not only of obvious practical value, and a thing to be acquired for its own sake, but also that it supplies the best foundation for the study of the written language. When the child's command of English on entering school is small, the introduction of reading is postponed until a certain degree of oral proficiency has been attained.

The object of the literature lesson is to increase the child's knowledge of human nature, and in so doing, add to his stock of ideas about life. Their school literature deals chiefly with human action, and is principally narrative or dramatic in form, proceeding from folk lore and songs to fables and parables, myths and legends, romance, and adventure, history, and biography. It also includes sketches of travel and discovery, and descriptions of unfamiliar phenomena or processes likely to excite curiosity and imagination. Simple lyrics and some easy specimens of oratory and argument are attempted with the higher classes. Stories of child-life, not too trivial, the simple conditions of primitive life, and many aspects of modern life are made interesting. Tales and poems of local repute are also read. The teaching of literature at first is entirely oral, and it continues to be largely oral until the mechanical difficulties of reading have been mastered. To the end of the elementary course the reading of good literature aloud by the teacher forms a regular exercise.

When the mechanics of reading have been mastered, there is continuous reading as well as reading of extracts from class books of the ordinary type. The books chosen for continuous reading are easier than the class reader, and are read more rapidly and in the higher classes, silently. The reading is excellent, the expression wonderfully good, and, in most places the enunciation perfect. There is much time given for drill on poems, which are read with feeling.

Their methods in teaching spelling are excellent. From the primary schools through the higher schools, the children are taught to speak, to write and to use words correctly. While the English schools do not have at their command so complete

text books in spelling as those in use in our schools, they have not lost the idea that no matter what position the child occupies in life, he must know how to express himself in a written language. Words are taken from the geography, reader, history, poems, stories and myths, and the lesson is made interesting. The child's interest is aroused, and he is made to feel that words are living ideas.

Written composition is not begun until the children have attained considerable proficiency in oral composition and in the mechanics of writing. The written composition is very similar to ours, being reproductions of model descriptions, expanding outline descriptions, descriptions of actual observations, letter writing, discussion of current topics, etc.

The choice of words and the fluency with which the children express themselves seemed to us to be far ahead of our American schools, making us feel more than ever that the English have had a language for centuries, while we are trying to teach English to pupils of many nationalities. Particular attention is paid to voice training. Vowel drills and breathing exercises are given. An elementary knowledge of phonetics is required.

No grammar is taught until written composition begins. The format on of correct habits of speech in the primary grades depends on imitation and practice, and requires time and reiteration. Not nearly so much technical grammar is taught as in our schools, and the lessons in grammar are taken from the text books in reading and from the books in literature. Their results are far better than ours. In the higher classes, no fixed time is given for technical grammar, yet some schools find it necessary to give it special time. In the translation of Latin or French in the Higher Elementary Schools, English idioms are insisted upon, and no translation from these languages, word for word such as we often hear, is ever permitted.

ARITHMETIC

The arithmetic in the elementary schools is very similar to ours. It is taught very much earlier than it is in the American schools. The problems given are not so difficult as those we give; they do not involve so many processes. Most of the work is done with pen and ink and saved for the eye of the inspector. Although this takes much time since they go very slowly, they

do not seem to get any better result than we do. Much time is spent on oral work. Dexterity in performing the fundamental operations, both mentally and on paper, with due attention to short methods, is pursued throughout the whole course. This point is specially emphasized by having speed tests in order to attain speed with accuracy.

HISTORY.

Oral instruction predominates over text book instruction in the teaching of history, and the children take a keen interest in this subject.

Before beginning a systematic study of history, tales relating to historical or mythical persons or events are told. These tales are taken from any part of English history or legend. In almost every part of the country there are British or Roman forts, feudal castles, manor houses, churches and battlefields to which some historical interest is attached; these stimulate the imagination of the children and give them their first interest in history.

Lessons are assigned by topics and not by the number of pages. Each pupil is required to give in his own language all the information he is able to obtain upon the lesson. Great stress is laid on noted days in history, as well as the birthdays of great men in English history and literature.

A Historical Association was organized in London in 1906, whose object is to promote the study of history in the schools, and to facilitate coöperation among those engaged in teaching it. All persons engaged or interested in the teaching of history are eligible for membership. Information as to existing systems of historical teaching at home and abroad, together with aids to assist in the teaching of the subject are collected, and the information is distributed among the members of the society.

GEOGRAPHY.

The curriculum of the schools of Great Britain recognizes geography as being of such practical value that it has a place in both the elementary and the secondary schools. In the elementary schools entire attention is given to Great Britain and her colonies, with the result that the majority of the British public is thoroughly ignorant of the United States, but is thoroughly conversant with its own country. The study of geography is

continued in the secondary schools; the pupil's knowledge is there supplemented by a study of the world in general. Such a method is pursued by us in the teaching of history; why not in geography?

The methods pursued are very much the same as with us, except that far more time is allowed for the development of the subject. The teaching is mostly oral, the text book being a mere outline of the year's work. This requires that the teacher be the text book and supplementary reader as well. The subject is begun very early, the first lessons being on the home region. The pupils are taken to see interesting formations of land and rock and all places of historic interest. The industries of the region are made thoroughly familiar to the students, after which the British Isles and the colonies are studied in the same manner as far as possible. Such a method, well used, is bound to produce excellent results.

RAMBLES.

Go where you will in Europe you will find a place celebrated in history, song or story; then add to this the many art galleries, museums and parks that are so numerous and beautiful. So much material exists for the rambler in highway and byway that there is almost an embarrassment of riches. It will be readily seen that "these footprints of time" must be studied under wise direction, and who so capable as the teacher?

The London County Council has given permission for classes to visit these places under the direction of the teacher, but has fastened to the permission unnecessary "red tape" that curtails its usefulness in a measure. They insist that the request be made to them three days before the contemplated visit. It seems to us that more classes could enjoy such opportunities were officialdom reduced to a minimum. However, classes are beginning to take advantage of it. One class that we met in the Tate Gallery evinced much interest. Their teacher was merely showing them how to look at a picture, how to understand and appreciate it, but did not touch in any way on the technical side. Each boy had a printed slip showing what he was to look for. If these are made pleasure excursions and only occasional ones used as the basis for a composition lesson, the pupils' pleasure would be much enhanced.

They have another very excellent scheme for bringing the boys into contact with outdoor life. Each boy furnishes five dollars and the teacher chaperones a party of them for a two-weeks' trip into the country; these sometimes become walking-tours. This is particularly delightful to the boys in the poorer districts who would otherwise never feel the influence of nature at first hand.

Pittsburgh furnishes outings of this kind but not in connection with the public schools.

London has many parks, which are visited constantly by the pupils of the elementary schools, accompanied by the teacher. The schools are trying as far as possible to break away from books and to study things, which is the only true manner of learning.

NATURE STUDY.

Nothing so broadens the mind and deepens the character as the love of nature. The schools of Great Britain have recognized this fact, and Nature Study is one of its most important branches of learning, being correlated with many other subjects.

In connection with Nature Study a scheme has been inaugurated among a large number of schools in London and the rural districts, called the "Schools' Mutual Aid Scheme," which has aroused keen interest in teachers and pupils alike. The following is the method in vogue: Each country school sends to the London schools wild flowers, grasses, ferns, fruits, seeds, shells, mosses, lichens, skeleton leaves, twigs showing winter buds, evergreen leaves, cones, feathers, fossils, hips and haws, nuts, acorns, and birds' nests and eggs that have been deserted. Town schools send in exchange letters giving interesting details of town life, especially of zoological gardens, museums, etc., picture post cards, newspaper cuttings, magazines, drawings, newspapers, specimens from factories, home-made articles, etc. Parcels are sent fortnightly from April to October, and once in three weeks from November to March. Boxes of leaves are collected in the parks and sent to the various city schools for study.

Excellent charts are made, as many of the specimens as possible being used as a basis of design in drawings by the pupils. The schools enter into competition for a prize—a banner, which is hung in the assembly hall of the winning school.

School Gardens are beginning to receive attention. That the study of plant life has a most important ethical value is being recognized in all progressive school communities. In her great attention to Nature Study and its bearing upon the character of the child, Great Britain is far ahead of us. The school garden, however, is in its infancy.

In a school in Southampton a large piece of property adjoining the playground had been purchased, and was being divided into small plots for the school garden. Great care was being taken with its preparation, and when completed it will be a model school garden. The flowers are planted in the spring, the children themselves sending away for the seeds. The teacher in charge directs the choice of plants so that there shall be a proper succession of blossoms throughout the spring, summer and autumn.

A school garden is found to be one of the finest aids to language development, giving abundant opportunity for spontaneous speech on the part of the child. It develops his color-sense also, and softens and refines his nature. Any one who has seen the delight of a little city urchin over a tiny bunch of violets or a dandelion, will understand the value of the school garden.

In Manchester Nature Study is considered so important that a special teacher is employed to give lessons to the elementary teachers; those of contiguous districts meet at a central place once a week, the Educational Committee paying their car fare. This special teacher visits the schools and keeps a general oversight of the work. In the curriculum of every school, Nature Study has a prominent place, as much of the technical part as possible, however, being eliminated.

The following is a syllabus of lectures to the teachers' elementary class in Nature Study:

1 A few remarks upon plant life as a whole.
2. Seeds and seedlings.
3. Roots and stems—Relationship to soil—Foliage—form and work.
4. Flower—use to plant.
5. Honey hiding places.
6. Winter buds and twigs.
7. Plant movements.

8. Holly and mistletoe.
9. Adaption to surroundings by plants.
10. Plants of moor, swamp, and mere.
11. Poisonous plants.
12. Ferns, mosses, mushrooms, toadstools.
13. Plant classification.
14. Buttercup, cabbage, pink.
15. Pea rose carrot, daisy.
16. Primrose, for-get-me-not, foxglove, sage.
17 Oak, lily, narcissus

Lectures are made practical by taking botanical excursions, with the object of noting the adaption to environment among plants, and of becoming conversant in a practical way with the above natural orders.

The teachers have for assistance in this work, the School Nature Study Union, which aims to bring together, for mutual help and advice, those interested in Nature Study in general, and in its place in education in particular. Monthly meetings are held in winter, at which papers are read by specialists on various aspects of Nature Study, the papers being followed by discussion; excursions are made in summer, for purposes of practical Nature Study; the Union publishes, three times a year, in January May and October, an official organ entitled "School Nature Study," containing general reports of the work of the Union, summaries of the papers read at the monthly meetings, practical seasonable articles which are reprinted in leaflet form for use in class; information is furnished concerning excursions, museums, etc., the supply of books, apparatus, and specimens and other facilities for Nature Study, such as vacation courses; annual conferences are held sometimes in connection with other societies whose work may touch that of the Union. The President of the "Nature Study Union" is Sir George Kekewich, K. C. B., M. P. and the society numbers among its officers and members men and women high in educational and scientific circles.

ELEMENTARY SCIENCE.

The subject of elementary science receives far more attention than it does with us, and is really what it purports to be—elementary science. We saw the work in a school at Southampton that was admirable. The classes devote 1½ hours week-

ly to this study, the subjects developed being length, area, volume, density and the development and chemistry of common things; the apparatus is of the simplest description. This study is correllated with geography and arithmetic, and is admirable for the development of the reasoning faculties.

DRAWING.

The instruction in drawing is not in accordance with any special system. In some places the Kensington System is used; in others this system has recently been abolished.

In many of the elementary schools very little time is devoted to the subject of drawing; but there are special drawing schools that pupils from twelve to fourteen years of age may attend, after completing the course in the elementary schools. In the boys' schools, drawing receives more attention than in the girls' schools; the girls devoting much time to sewing.

The class rooms, as a rule, are provided with pictures, cabinets of various kinds of specimens, small aquaria, etc. Leaves, flowers and cuttings, and also growing plants are sent in boxes to the schools.

In some of the schools, a special art room is provided for the instruction in drawing and the lessons are conducted by a special teacher. The forms taught are the ellipse, the oval, varieties of the loop form, conventionalized leaf forms of various kinds, the spiral, etc. Each form is diligently practiced without preliminary blocking in. The object of this exercise is to facilitate combined action of hand and eye, and no form is considered mastered until it can be reproduced with rapidity and certainty. When one of the fundamental forms has been mastered, it is made the basis, either with variations or in combination with other forms, of elementary exercises in design. The curriculum recommends that practice in clay modeling be carried on with the drawing, but it is at present done in only a few of the schools. Practice is given in drawing simple forms, such as leaves, flowers, or parts of flowers, shells, fish, birds, and simple artificial objects or models of the same. Each student selects for himself the object that he proposes to study; usually some form that has occurred or will occur in connection with the nature lessons of the school. When a fairly correct representation has been obtained, it is

thereafter drawn, not merely once or twice, but repeatedly until it can be reproduced from memory.

Boxes of school crayons, of reasonably good quality and with a fairly extended range of colors, are obtainable, and very good results in tone and color are obtained with this medium. The use of these crayons affords a method of introducing color representation, which is very serviceable in many schools, especially those where the junior classes are large. The use of flat washes of color has been introduced in many of the schools. After the designs are drawn, the color in greyed effect is applied. Some good practice is obtained, especially in the younger classes from the free and rapid drawing of the fundamental forms to a large scale.

The Art for Schools Association was founded in 1883, with the object of supplying an educational basis for the work already being done by the Loan Exhibitions of pictures in poor districts of London and other large towns. Such exhibitions impart much pleasure of a refining and elevating kind. They appeal, for the most part, to persons who have passed the years especially given up to education; and many who might benefit by them, had their artistic instincts been awakened at school, miss their influence, because they have never been taught to find pleasure in pictorial art. The idea of the founders of the Art for Schools Association was that much might be done to educate and gratify the taste of children by simply placing in the class rooms of elementary schools a few good prints and photographs of beautiful and interesting works of art, such as most people of taste like to have in their own homes.

MANUAL TRAINING.

Instruction in manual training is conducted in certain schools called centers, to which the classes from neighboring schools go for instruction. All boys in Grade Seven are eligible except those who are under eleven years of age, or too small to handle the tools. Boys over twelve, below Grade Seven, are also eligible. Manual training has had a place in the school for some years, so that 80% of the necessary accommodation has already been provided. The work done in these centers is excellent, handicapped as they are by a great lack of what we term necessary appliances. Some of the work turned out by the

boys of the elementary and higher elementary schools, notably the inlaid work, would be a credit to journeymen, cabinet-makers and carpenters. The work is all done by hand, except the absolutely necessary tool work.

There are twelve metal centers giving instruction to 68,000 boys weekly. Their schools certainly excel many of ours in manual training, their shops being real shops, and not a show room for the display of high-priced machinery.

DOMESTIC SCIENCE.

In domestic science, sewing, cooking, and laundry work are taught to girls; every grade teacher teaches sewing and knitting. A special teacher is engaged for cooking and laundry work. Accomodation for each of the three divisions, cooking, laundry, and housewifery, is, as far as possible, grouped so that many centers consist of rooms for each of the three subjects, and the three comprise what is called domestic economy. A cooking class consists of eighteen pupils, and a laundry class of fourteen pupils each. All girls of Standard V, and all over twelve years of age of any grade, are eligible. Unfortunately the existing accomodations provide for only 50% of the number of eligible girls. The cooking and laundry rooms are very poorly equipped, and everywhere we observed the effort to use no utensil not found in a workingman's cottage. This would not be thought a good feature in the United States, as we consider the school the place pre-eminently fitted for teaching improved methods and higher ideals.

The sewing done is very neat and consists of plain stitching, darning, etc., but all is done on small models, a system discarded in the United States ten years ago. The time spent in sewing has been greatly lessened of late years, owing to the efforts of the National Union of Teachers which has succeeded in increasing the number of hours devoted to intellectual pursuits by the girls' classes.

At the Albert Road School for Girls, Penarth, Cardiff, an experiment in domestic economy is being tried. This home-making center contains forty pupils from the last two classes in the elementary school, with a few from the Non-Provided School. It is divided into two classes, each containing twenty pupils, under two teachers, one for technical and one for general

education. The pupils spend half of each school day in general and half in technical education. Each class spends the mornings of one week and the afternoons of the following week in technical work. In educational work the aim is chiefly to arouse wide interest by giving weekly lessons on the events of the day, that involve local history, imperial questions, municipal events, nature and art. An attempt is made to develop a taste for solid reading, and the pupils borrow books from the Free Library, the teachers having an oversight of their books. The lessons are, so far as possible, oral discussions. Along with this work is given a careful training in manners and in social duties. The technical work consists of a three-weeks' course in systematic card-board work and a four-weeks' course in woodwork. This course is specially devised for home makers, and the children at once proceed to utilize what they have learned in making a drawing of a card-board object, constructing carefully a dainty portfolio, mending books, music, picture frames, etc. This class had gone to a second-hand shop, and purchased, for a very small amount, some very battered furniture, and had mended, padded, and covered it until three rooms—a bed room, sitting room and dining room—had been constructed with a neatness and efficiency truly remarkable. There was a workroom attached to this school in which the girls handled the tools as well as boys could have done. In addition to this the pupils are taught cleaning of objects, furniture, materials, and clothing, sewing, dressmaking, cooking, bookkeeping, marketing, and the care and amusement of children. This is the only school of its kind in Great Britain, and its progress is being watched with much interest. It certainly seems to meet the needs of the district in which it is being tried.

EVENING SCHOOLS.

The evening schools furnish practically the only education to the great majority of the English people after the fourteenth year, and only fifteen per cent. of the population of London between the ages of fifteen and twenty-one are enrolled in these schools. When the boys and girls leave the elementary schools the head masters and head mistresses endeavor to persuade them to continue their education in the evening schools. Many of these schools are "continuation schools" in fact. Other eve-

ning schools devote their attention to technical and commercial subjects in all grades from the most elementary through the university. These schools are one of the most noteworthy features of the English educational system. In fact Northampton Institute had only evening sessions during its first four years.

LONDON.—In London the old type of evening schools where adults were instructed in the elements of the three R's has practically disappeared. There is not much system in the evening schools. The subjects pursued vary according to resources of the district or to the tastes of the founder. These schools might be divided into five fairly distinct types.

First, we find the ordinary continuation schools. These collect the old pupils from ne ghboring day schools and are taught as far as possible by teachers from these schools. There are about 270 schools of this type, of which 70 are free; the others charge a fee of twenty-five cents for the term from September to Easter.

Second, the higher grade continuation school has on its rolls pupils who as a rule come from better homes, enjoy better conditions of work, have passed what corresponds to our eighth grade, and come to the school with a definite object. There are about 50 or 60 of these schools in London. A fee of twenty-five to sixty cents is charged.

Third, the higher grade continuation schools frequently develop into the commercial schools. These are usually held in the building of the elementary school, but sometimes in the Polytechnic buildings. Here the clerks may obtain instruction in the ordinary commercial subjects, including French, Spanish and German. A fee of sixty cents to a dollar and a quarter is charged in these schools.

Fourth, the polytechnical and art schools give the opportunity to apprentices to become skilled workmen, and skilled workmen may also widen their skill and knowledge. There are about thirty schools of this type, with fees varying from two to five dollars.

Fifth, a limited amount of university work is being done, mostly in King's College, Birkbeck, and also in the London School of Economics, for a considerable number of adults who are unable to meet some of the academic requirements that

young boys are usually able to fulfill, that would admit them regularly to the London University.

In the Duncombe Road Evening School there is a class composed of policemen who come for the hour preceding the time to report for duty, and who are preparing for the examination for promotion. They are taught sufficient English composition to enable them to make out reports, enough arithmetic and drawing to describe the exact place of an accident, etc., and are also taught the first duties to the wounded, such as how to check the excessive flow of blood, how to bandage wounds, and how to tell whether a man is suffering from epilepsy or from alcoholism. Most of the classes are composed of boys and girls who are continuing the work of the elementary school. This school, along with the Shoreditch Technical Institute and others, has classes in which girls may learn dress-making, millinery, upholstering, and laundering. It is impossible to predict the influence of these schools. The opportunities in these evening industrial and trade schools, and the high class of instruction, are fully appreciated by many young and middle-aged people, as is attested by the superior work turned out. While the English evening continuation school system is not so definite nor so well articulated with the general educational system as that in Germany, it is more widely diffused, and perhaps reaches more people. The purpose of these schools is not to suspersede the training of the workshop, but merely to supplement it. In the Northampton Institute, and many other schools, pupils are not permitted to spend the entire evening in the workshop; they must take some purely mental work.

MANCHESTER.—In this city, noted the world round for its excellent technical schools, there are enrolled about thirty thousand pupils in the various evening schools. So far as the number of pupils is concerned, by far the greater part of technical education is carried on in the evening schools. In 1905-1906, out of a total of 5,932 students attending the School of Technology, only 635 were day pupils. The Municipal School of Commerce is an evening school entirely. Pupils come thirty miles to attend the school, where over 3,500 pupils are enrolled. This school is on the opposite side of the street from the School of Technology. About 8,000 pupils are turned into one narrow street from these two schools at 9:30 P. M. There are six branch

technical schools and seventeen branch commercial schools located in the different parts of the city. There is at present no co-ordination between the branch and the municipal technical schools. The day school authorities co-operate with, and frequently are identical with, the authorities in charge of the evening schools. In one school eighty per cent. of the boys who finish the day school enroll in the evening school. In many cities of Great Britain the head master is not permitted to teach in the evening schools. Dr. B. Smith says: "The success of the Manchester School Board in maintaining the evening schools would have been impossible without the active co-operation of many of the day-school teachers. The wise policy was followed of giving the head master of the day school charge of the evening school conducted in the same building, and in most cases these head masters took up the work with a keen sense of its importance."

As an inducement to the pupils completing the elementary or higher elementary school course to enroll at once in the evening school, it was decided in 1904 to admit all such pupils free. The increased attendance during the following year showed that the pupils appreciated the interest of those in authority. This plan has been continued.

The following table illustrates the graded system and courses of instruction in the Manchester evening schools:

GRADE III.

Municipal School of Technology.—Specialized instruction in science and technology.	Municipal School of Commerce.—Specialized instruction in commercial subjects.

GRADE II.—Branch technical and commercial schools; evening institutes for women and girls.

Technical courses extending over three years, to meet the requirements of all classes of artisan students.	Commercial courses extending over three years, to meet the requirements of juniors in business houses.	Domestic courses extending over two years, for women and girls over 16 years old

GRADE I.—Evening continuation schools.

Preliminary technical course extending over two years, for boys engaged in manual occupations.	Preliminary commercial course extending over two years, for boys and girls engaged in commercial occupations.	Preliminary domestic course extending over two years, for girls desirous of receiving a training in domestic subjects.

Besides these there is a general course for boys and girls who desire to improve their general education or who are not sufficiently prepared to take advantage of the above courses.

No one under sixteen years of age is permitted to attend the Municipal Evening School of Commerce. Those under sixteen must attend one of the other evening schools. In this school 800 students were studying French, 400 German, 300 Spanish, 900 Commercial English, 675 Commercial Law. 733 Shorthand, etc. All commercial students must take English unless they show a certain proficiency in that subject.

LEEDS.—In Leeds and towns in the Yorkshire and West Riding districts there are very carefully worked out plans for co-ordinating and unifying the system of education for the working people. The conditions and needs have been studied and all existing means have been utilized to meet these ends. These schools excel in organization and efficiency.

Many of the employers in England encourage their employees to attend the evening schools by promoting them more rapidly than those who do not spend their extra time in school, or by letting them off an hour earlier on the days of the school sessions. [This is done for some who attend the Pittsburgh Evening High School.] They have the same discouragements in England that we have. The pupils do not attend regularly because of overtime work. The pupils are often so tired that they do not get the full benefit of the instruction and they cannot properly prepare the lessons.

INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS.

Under this head we shall include trade and industrial schools. These schools are probably more specialized in England than in most parts of this country. Even in the same city there are many different kinds of schools; e. g., in the section of the city

inhabited principally by jewelers, the day and evening continuation schools specialize in the jewelery trades; in another most of the pupils, old and young, do cabinet work; and in another most of the pupils are learning the art of bookbinding.

Since it will be impossible to describe all of the different schools, we shall describe the Borough Polytechnic Institute Day School of London. The boys who enter this school must be over twelve years of age, must have passed in the subjects of at least Standard VI, roughly corresponding to our seventh grade, must have made up their minds to enter some handicraft trade, and not a clerical position, and must have the written promise of their parents that they will be sent to this school for three years. Arrangements are made for a class of fourth-year boys who show special aptitude for this kind of work. The work of the first year is the same for all boys. In the second year the course is slightly varied to suit the requirements of boys who have decided upon their future trades; for example, those wishing to enter the bookbinding, bakery, printing, or other trades will devote more time to art subjects or chemistry than those who intend to be engineers; in the third year a more real specialization to particular trades or groups of trades is allowed.

The following is the division of the pupils' time for each week in the school year of forty weeks.

	1st Yr.	2nd Yr.	3rd Yr.
Mathematics	5	4	4½
English subjects, including Special Lectures and Visits to Museums and Works.	6	3	3
Science	4	4½	6
Mechanical Drawing	4	5	5
Art	2	1½	..
French	..	3	3
Workshop Instruction	5	5	7½
Physical Exercises	1½	1½	1
	27½	27½	30

The tuition is £3 per year. The London County Council has offered twenty scholarships that may be used by boys whose

parents have less than £160 income. These scholarships give free tuition and a grant of £6 for each of the first two years and £15 for the third year. There are also free tuition scholarships and other scholarships giving free education with £8 in the second year and £11 in the third year for boys in council schools residing in the district. These sums are made payable to the boy and not to the parent. If the work or conduct is unsatisfactory all help is withdrawn.

In this school geometry is made the basis for all mathematics. The pupil starts with a square that he makes out of pasteboard. He then uses arithmetic in the different computations. The little algebra that is taught is introduced at this time. All of the work is made practical. Simple problems or formulae of chemistry or physics are used instead of the usual abstract problems. Most, if not all, of the problems are from their own measurements or experiments. In the first year the pupil studies mensuration, algebra, plane and solid geometry. In developing solids the pupil must get each figure in the flat before he cuts out his zinc. Wire models are used to give lines that come after soldering. Boys work out and prove all angles by the compasses; only the master uses the master's gauge and square. Only enough of forging is taught to enable the boy to take care of his tools or to make new ones.

The school has an advisory committee that aims to make the work of the school fit into the industries of the neighborhood. In this way the authorities hope to secure positions for those who complete the course. We were informed that employers in the different lines of industries were anxious to get these boys as they soon become superior workmen. The school authorities feel that the subdivision of labor enormously increases the necessity for a broad training of the workers in any trade. This training must open up the whole trade to the eye of a pupil. The apprentice often learns how to do only an insignificant part of the whole work. A boy cannot call himself a carpenter if he can only make a door with the aid of machinery, nor is he an engineer if his skill is restricted to looking after an automatic machine. This school, as do most of its class, feels that there will always be a demand for carpenters, engineers, etc., in the real sense, even if particular methods or processes in these trades are abandoned.

The training given in the girls' trade schools is highly specialized for the trades. The aim of the instruction is to take the place of apprenticeship, and it leads to the rank of an assistant. This work is in the experimental stage. Many feel that the girls should have more preliminary training to bridge the gap between the work of the elementary school and that of the trade school. Specialization is less dangerous in the case of girls than in that of boys, because the basis of all women's trades is needlework, of which they learn the principles more or less thoroughly in their school work and at home, while the basis of the boys' trades, manual accuracy and skill, does not fall to the lot of all boys in the same way.

In many of the cities we found what are called part-time trade schools. The work of these is really a modified form of the work done in the evening classes. The employers allow their young people some time off during a portion of the day, without deduction of pay, to attend classes that will improve their work. Such an arrangement avoids the necessity of study when pupils are tired after a long day's work, and is, therefore, the right thing for growing boys and girls. Some employers offer prizes for the best work among their apprentices. Reports are usually sent from the school to the employers every month.

HALF-DAY SCHOOLS.

An interesting feature in some of the cities, especially Leeds, is the special half-day and evening engineering course, which has just been established. This is offered to students in mechanical engineering. "By this means engineering employers of the city and district now have the opportunity of sending apprentices and trade boys who have exceptional merit or ability, to the department of mechanical engineering of the technical school, to receive a more thorough course of study than is possible in evening classes alone. Arrangements are made for a complete four years' course." Pupils must be over sixteen years of age, and preference is given to those actually engaged in engineering works, who are sent by their employers. The school authorities hope to extend this plan to other lines of industry and trade represented in the city.

OPEN AIR SCHOOLS.

During last summer three open air schools were conducted in different districts of London. Each school contained about seventy pupils, boys and girls, selected from those children in adjacent schools who appeared to be likely to derive benefit from the open air treatment. A head teacher and three assistants were allowed to each school, and there were in addition, a nurse, cook, cook's assistant, and schoolkeeper. The school hours were from 9:00 A. M. to 7:00 P. M., and the pupils were served three meals a day. The physical condition of the scholars was kept under regular observation, and the results were carefully recorded. The teaching methods employed were in several respects different from those adopted in ordinary elementary schools, the open air life rendering such modifications desirable. Each school was under the direct observation of a specially chosen body of local managers. It began in June and lasted until the end of October.

SCHOOLS FOR DELINQUENTS.

Special industrial schools are provided for the care of children under fourteen years of age who, by reason of their surroundings or of personal moral weakness, are in danger of falling into crime. They are distinctly preventive in their character. Children must be committed by a magistrate and may be retained until they reach the age of sixteen years, after which time the managers have powers of supervision for a further period of two years, with power of recall if necessary. Children are, however, usually licensed out at the age of fifteen years.

The routine consists of school-room work and industrial occupation in equal proportions. Physical training and swimming receive considerable attention. The trades usually taught in boys' schools are shoemaking, tailoring, carpentry, farming and gardening, and in some cases other trades such as printing, smithing, etc. A few of the institutions are either training ships or shore schools of a similar character, with facilities for boating and instruction in navigation.

On leaving the schools, boys are usually placed in an occupation or trade for which they have been trained. A large number go to Army Bands, and many others to skilled trades or

farm service. Girls are trained in all branches of domestic work, and on leaving are usually placed in good situations as servants. A method of disposal that is being adopted more largely year by year is that of emigration to Canada. The boys and girls are sent out under the care of one of the recognized emigration societies, which places them in situations and supervises them until they reach the age of eighteen. The after careers of industrial school children are in the great majority of cases satisfactory, and in some instances these children do exceptionally well.

Two of these industrial schools are reserved exclusively for the reception of boys committed for non-attendance at day schools, and they are known as "Truant Schools". Boys are committed until they reach the age of fourteen, but after a short period of detention, they are given a license, and so long as they attend a day school regularly no further action is taken; but if they fail to do this they are taken back to the truant school for a further period. Truancy, has, however, almost disappeared.

Day industrial schools are those in which the children are fed, taught, and trained, but are not clothed nor provided with lodging. They attend from 8 A. M. to 6 P. M. daily except Sunday, and during this time the routine is similar to that of the boarding schools. They cannot be retained at the day industrial schools after fourteen years of age, but when they attain that age, no difficulty is experienced in getting situations for them. The parents are required to contribute, when possible, towards the cost of maintenance.

REFORMATORY SCHOOLS.

These schools are intended for young persons up to the age of sixteen years, who, having been convicted, are committed to them in lieu of being sent to prison. The Council has no reformatory schools of its own, but it has agreements with certain schools for the reception of young persons committed from the courts of London.

SCHOOLS FOR THE BLIND AND DEAF.

A special Act of Parliament requires a school authority to provide instruction up to the age of sixteen for the blind and deaf, and, if necessary, to maintain such children in schools or

institutions. The schools are free, but a charge for maintenance is made to the parents according to their means.

Between the ages of five and thirteen, blind or deaf children attend specially organized mixed day schools, where each of the classes for the blind contains, as a rule, about ten pupils, and those for the deaf about eight. The instruction in the blind school is given by means of Braille writing and reading, and the instruction in the deaf schools, except in the case of the defective deaf, is by the oral system. The defective deaf, though they are encouraged to learn to speak, are also taught by means of the finger alphabet, writing, and simple signs. The pupils from thirteen to sixteen years of age are taught in schools which are partly day and partly boarding; the children who can conveniently attend from their own homes and who have suitable homes, are day pupils, while those who come from a distance and from unsuitable homes are resident pupils. The instruction of the older pupils, both blind and deaf, includes a large amount of manual work. Many of these older children on leaving school are able to obtain employment at the trades they have been taught in the school.

SCHOOLS FOR THE MENTALLY AND PHYSICALLY DEFECTIVE.

The London County Council has also provided special instruction for both mentally and physically defective children. Children are admitted to these schools on being medically certified as being not imbecile nor merely dull nor backward, but being, by reason of mental or physical defect, incapable of receiving proper instruction in the ordinary elementary schools, but not incapable of receiving benefit from the instruction in the special schools. The school curriculum is an adaption of that in the ordinary elementary schools, with a much larger proportion of manual work; nearly half of the time is given to manual occupations. An art class is carried on by a special art teacher in each of the schools. Separate schools have been provided for older mentally defective boys where, in addition to the ordinary subjects of instruction, shoemaking or tailoring is also taught. Three of the schools for physically defective children are carried on in hospitals for children.

Voluntary committees arrange mid-day meals for children in the day schools for the blind, deaf, and crippled children, and in connection with the after career of the children in all the special schools, the local managers have formed local after-care committees under a central organization. These committees assist in finding work for the children when they leave and in supervising them afterwards.

SECONDARY SCHOOLS.

Secondary schools differ from each other so considerably in curricula, ages of scholars, appointments, fees, and so forth, that accurate classification becomes impossible. It is extremely difficult to get information respecting these schools, as there exists a widespread and peculiarly emphatic disinclination on the part of the secondary school teachers to furnish information about salaries, conditions of contracts, and the prospect of superannuation.

According to the Regulations for Secondary Schools, "In order to be recognized as a Secondary School within the meaning of these Regulations, a school must offer to each of its pupils an education of a wider scope and higher grade than that of an Elementary School, provided by a progressive course of instruction, with the requisite organization, teaching staff, curriculum, and equipment, in the subjects necessary to a good general education upon lines suitable for pupils of an age range of at least as wide as from 12 to 16 or 17. Provision made for pupils below the age of 12 must be similarly suitable and in proper relation to the work done in the main portion of the School."—*Regulations for Secondary Schools.*

Heretofore the grants to secondary schools have been given as a recognition of the satisfactory teaching of science and drawing. The new regulations expressly state that to receive grants "the instruction must be general and complete." The following "Prefatory Memorandum" prefixed to the new regulations is a frank recognition that the old order is changed and explains the meaning of "general instruction": "It must be such as gives a reasonable degree of exercise and development to the whole of the faculties, and does not confine this development to a particular channel, whether that of pure and applied science, of literary and linguistic study, or that kind of acquirement that

is directed simply at fitting a boy or girl to enter business in a subordinate capacity with some previous knowledge of what he or she will be set to do."

This declaration, if heeded, is most gratifying to those who are truly interested in an all-round education. We were informed that when England saw Germany take away much of her commerce and many of her manufactories, she introduced trade schools of various kinds hoping to regain her lost prestige. However, the children were admitted to these schools at a much earlier period in England than in Germany. The German youth does not specialize until he has gained an all-round mental and physical power, and has acquired an acquaintance with the structure and laws of the physical world, together with exercise in the accurate use of thought and language, and in the practical ability to begin dealing with affairs.

The Regulations also say: "Instruction must be so planned as to lead up to a definite standard of acquirement in the various branches of instruction indicated above, and not stop short at a merely superficial introduction to any one of them. In no case can the course of the secondary school be considered complete that is not so planned as to carry on the scholars to such a point as they may reasonably be expected to reach at the age of sixteen."

From the diagram appended to page 47 we see that the secondary school of England differs from the high school of America in that (1) the courses are planned to begin before the ninth year; (2) they are from six to nine years in length; (3) flexibility is usually obtained, not by separate courses, but by separate schools; (4) the curriculum varies according to locality.

Co-education is the exception. In the United States the high school prepares for normal schools or for life, while the fitting for college is secondary; in England the corresponding school aims primarily to fit its students for college. The courses of study in secondary schools, public and private, in the United States, are more uniform than are to be found in the English schools. Scarcely any two English schools will read the same amount or portions of ancient or modern languages. If only one modern language is taught it is usually French. There is no ceremony at graduation. Instead of receiving a diploma at Eton, the graduate may have his name cut on the door or the

wainscoting. There is no "Alumni Association" but there is an "Old Boys' (or Old Girls') Club" which is a close corporation where the traditions of the school are cherished and where, in many cases, the new member finds influential friends who see that he secures a good positon in his profession or business.

A public school in England may be endowed and charge tuition, but it is not a money-making institution. All pupils over fourteen years of age either pay tuition or use a scholarship, a bursary or exhibition, which is awarded as a result of a competitive examination.* The great public schools charge such high fees that they are patronized by the upper class only, as are the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge. We were informed that wealthy parents often enter their boy baby's name in the house of a famous master in Eton, Rugby, Harlow, or some other famous school. By making application so early the parents hope to be able to get a place for their sons. There is a long waiting list for admission to these schools. The local universities and secondary schools, supported in the main by endowments and by moderate fees, are attended by the middle classes; while the elementary schools supported by the "rates," or taxes, give about all the schooling that the lower classes get unless they attend the evening continuation schools. Instead of a college education fitting men to appreciate more keenly the brotherhood of man, it too often lends its power and influence to aggravate one of the greatest curses among mankind, the caste system.

The school buildings of London as a rule have little and inferior equipment such as furniture, blackboards, charts, etc., but their walls are adorned with photographs of prominent writers, scientists, and statesmen, and of the masterpieces in art and in architecture. The scientific laboratories in most of the schools are very poorly equipped with out-of-date apparatus. The recreation grounds about the buildings are large and are fully utilized in the daily program. In some of the secondary schools the grounds, gymnasium, and chemical laboratories, were the only parts of the school that were open in the afternoon. In many schools they pay more attention to music and to public entertainments than we do. In one secondary school I found sixteen pianos, one in each classroom, for general use.

* Cardiff (Wales), has probably the only free high school in Great Britain.

To complete the course of the Higher Elementary school requires one or two years longer than that of the Elementary school. This does not mean that the child completes the Elementary school first. The parent who wishes his child to complete the higher course must choose this when the child is twelve years of age, two years before the completion of the Elementary course, and must promise that he will send the child to school for at least three years. The higher course has more cultural studies. Tuition of $15 to $40 per year is charged. Many of the pupils attending these schools have scholarships that cover the tuition, and maintenance grants of $20 to $40 for each of the first two years, and $60 to $80 for the third year, providing their parents' income does not exceed $800 per year.

It is difficult, almost impossible, for a pupil to fit into the work of the higher schools after he has finished the Elementary school course because Latin, French, Algebra and Geometry* are not studied in the elementary school, but are taken by the pupils of the higher schools at twelve or thirteen years of age. Those who finish the Higher Elementry schools become superior workmen; they are not prepared for college nor for the average technical school. Those of the middle classes who wish to prepare for college may enter the secondary schools at five years of age, or practically at any other time up to the age of ten or twelve, as the courses of study up to that time in the different schools are parallel or nearly so. After that, however, there is a wide difference in the studies. The Elementary school often emphasizes industrial work and so-called practical subjects.

A greater percentage of pupils drop out at the age of 14 years in England than in the United States, because (1) they are needed to assist in the support of the family; (2) further schooling is possible only to those who can afford to pay the tuition, or who have won scholarships; (3) those who have not selected either the higher elementary or the secondary school at the proper time cannot enter after fourteen without loss of one or two years and (4) the average English lad seems not to have so much ambition nor innate ability to overcome the obstacles as has the average boy in our schools.

* In a few elementary schools algebra and geometry are taught with arithmetic, mechanical drawing and shop-work.

It was very unfortunate that the system of scholarships and prizes ever became so deeply entrenched in the secondary schools of Great Britain. It was started in 1861, when the funds administered by the Science and Art Department were apportioned to those schools that could show the best results. This pernicious system only bears out the general impression that England does not yet believe in free secondary education. These prizes divert from the legitimate channels the funds that should be used in promoting the efficiency of the school. Some one has well said, "The Council's scholarships should be not badges of poverty, but titles of honor."

A pass in some subjects secured a larger grant for the school than a like result in others. Miss Zimmern says, "there was money in science, mathematics, and drawing. Geography, history, languages, and literature were unremunerative. They must go to the wall." Many leaders (?) were unable to stand for an all-round curriculum. They taught the subjects that brought most easily the financial support. This widens the chasm between scientific schools attended by the lower middle classes and the classic schools in which are enrolled the children from the higher classes.

We were made to feel that the aristoracy does not believe in free secondary education, because the masses might overthrow the classes. Itis evident that the Church is opposed to it, because these schools would not be long dominated by ecclesiastical authority.

Herewith is a diagram illustrating the system of scholarships and bursaries offered by the Manchester Education Committee. This diagram also illustrates in a general way the different kinds of schools of Great Britain and their relation to each other.

ANTWERP.

Through the kindness and courtesy of Mr. H. W. Diederich, American Consul General at Antwerp, we obtained a permit to visit the Antwerp schools. Mr. F. A. Van Hoof, the chief inspector of schools, accompanied us.

Antwerp is a city of about 300,000 inhabitants. It contains twenty-three boys' schools, twenty-one girls' schools, and twenty kindergartens. There are also two schools for defectives, each containing about 100 pupils. The schools are supported by the government and by the city, the city giving 3,000,000 fr. ($600,000) for education every year, and any extra amount needed for buildings. They are in charge of a chief inspector and three assistants. There are night schools in which languages, bookkeeping, shorthand, typewriting, etc., are taught besides the regular branches. Last year about 900 students were enrolled in these schools. Everything in both day and night schools is free. There is also a great commercial school called the "Handel Schule." Students come from great distances to attend this school.

There is no compulsory education school law yet, but it is probable that there will be one in the near future. Incorrigible children may be sent to a reformatory until they are twenty-one years of age.

No religious exercises of any kind are used in opening the schools. The school session is from 8:30 to 12 in the morning and from 2 to 4 in the lower grade and from 2 to 5 in the higher grades, in the afternoon. Thursday afternoon is a half-holiday. Most of the children stay in school to prepare their lessons for the next day.

A great amount of money is spent to construct substantial and comfortable buildings, which are kept in the very best condition. The cleanest school buildings we visited were in Antwerp. Some of these were originally the homes of wealthy persons, and had been remodeled for school purposes. On the walls

are printed in beautiful letters many wise sayings or admonitions regarding home, mother, country, citizenship, duties, etc. There are also framed specimens of the pupils' work. Plants and flowers are placed here and there. Each year the city pays 3,000 fr. ($600) to a Flemish painter for the best painting suitable to be hung in a school-room. These paintings are historical, or illustrate some particular line of education, or teach lessons to children. In consequence of this, there are many fine paintings in their schools.

All the schools have large playgrounds. Many of them have also a playground covered with glass to be used in bad weather. From a sanitary point of view, we do not think any fault can be found with these schools. There are electric lights in each room, so softened that the light is as near daylight as it can be made. The desks are placed so that all the light comes from the left. In the rooms for drawing, which are on the upper floor, light also comes from above but canvas can be drawn over the skylights when needed. In these rooms are cases containing large models of all kinds for drawing. Each school has a gymnasium well equipped with all kinds of apparatus. Some of the schools have baths beautifully kept. The pupils are required to take a bath once a week.

The kindergartens take both boys and girls from three to six years of age. These children are kept in school until four o'clock in the afternoon, and a lunch is served to them at noontime. Each class has a workroom and a playroom. Each child has his own space in the garden to take care of. The exercises and the various games are like those of our own schools. After leaving the kindergarten the boys and girls are taught many useful things such as sewing, cooking, taking care of the injured, etc. Needlework of all kinds is taught, the making and mending of clothes, embroidering, lace making, etc. Work is also done in leather; the children make frames, book covers, and other articles. Some things are also made of pewter. In the kitchens only such things are to be seen as are found in the humblest homes in Antwerp.

All the decorative work of the schools is done by the girls. In the drawing rooms of the girls' schools are models of doors, windows, and so forth. Many kinds of materials are used by the girls in making draperies for these models. Afterwards drawings

are made of these draperies. Girls of fifteen years of age may enter the training school for teachers, the course of which lasts four years.

July 21st is one of the greatest holidays in Antwerp. It is the "Childrens' Day". All the people are very proud of their schools and take part in the celebration. Each school marches to the park with its own banner. These banners, made by the girls, are very artistic.

In all the schools we visited, the order was extremely good, and the boys and girls seemed happy and interested in their work. In every school, there was no waste of time; every minute meant work. The teaching is of the most practical kind tending to fit the girls for household duties and the boys for earning a livelihood. We were delighted beyond measure with these schools, and we feel that we cannot say too much in praise of them. The teachers are as much interested as the pupils, and there is the right sort of sympathy between them. The children seem strong and healthy, and we venture to say that no outside pleasures interfere with the work of the schools.

We wish to express our thanks to Mr. Van Hoof and the teachers of Antwerp for their great kindness to us and for the many beautiful drawings they so willingly gave us.

GERMANY.

The common schools are the basis of the German school system. Attendance is compulsory between the ages of 6 or 7 and 14. The common schools are of three ranks, all of the same grade, and having teachers equally well trained, but of differing social and financial rank.

The lower common school is attended by the children of the poorer classes, and no tuition is required. The middle common school is for the children of the well-off middle class, and a moderate tuition is charged. The higher common school is attended only by the children of the wealthiest parents. But many of the wealthy send their children to private schools.

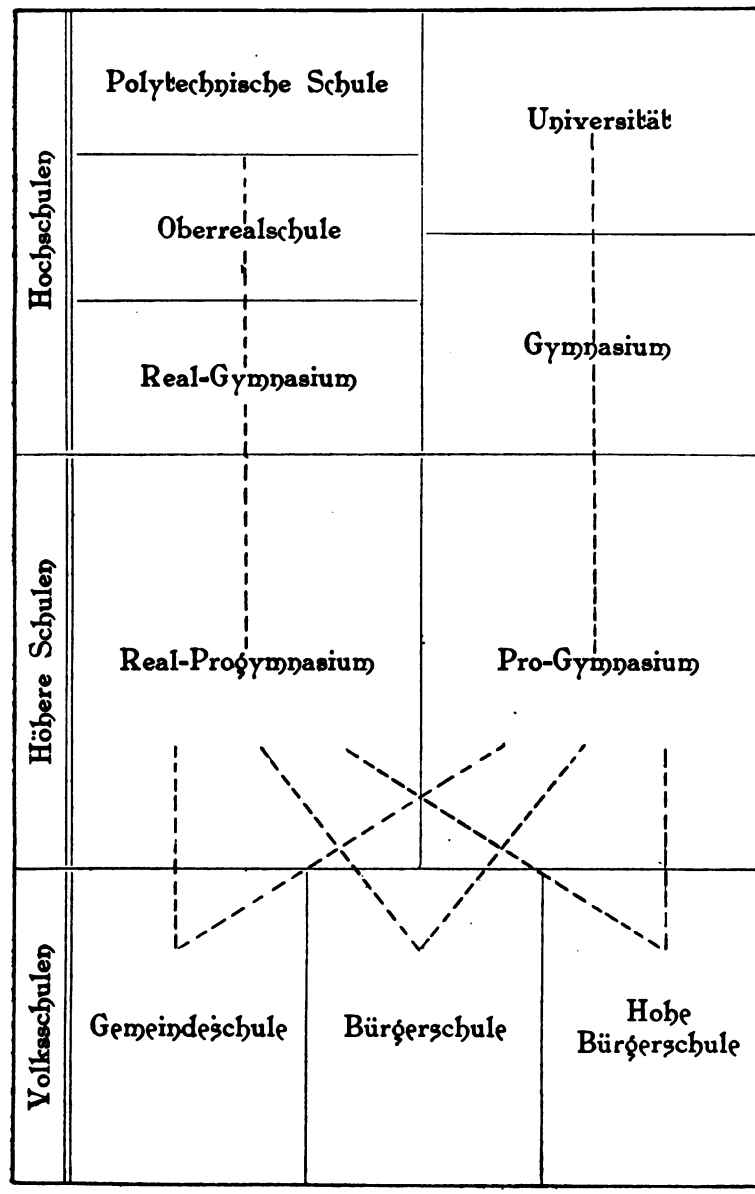
When a pupil is ten years old and has completed about one-half of the common school course, his parents must choose the course of study that they wish to have him pursue from that time on, with reference to his future career, and also to their own means and position in life; and the next four years of the common school work will vary according to that choice.

If only an elementary education is to be given him, he will not continue beyond the four remaining years of the common school.

If a secondary education is to be given, it will require either six or nine years beyond the tenth year; and may follow either of two lines: Through a preparatory school and a fitting school, both of classical grade, leading to college; or through a manual training and a technical school, in preparation for skilled work as an artisan, textile worker, or skilled mechanic. Girls' secondary schools give instruction in manual training, elementary science and domestic arts.

College and university work are outside of the purpose of this report.

The accompanying diagram shows the relations of the several grades of school:


Hochschulen
Höhere Schulen
Volksschulen
Polytechnische Schule
Universität
Oberrealschule
Real-Gymnasium
Gymnasium
Real-Progymnasium
Pro-Gymnasium
Gemeindeschule
Bürgerschule
Hohe Bürgerschule

It is most difficult to gain access to a common school in Germany, for visitors are not admitted as a rule; there must be nothing to disturb, nothing to distract the attention of the pupils. In concentration lies their thoroughness and mastery in the realm of education. In order to obtain permission to visit the schools of Berlin, one must apply to the American Ambassador, who sends the name with a request to the Cultus Minister. After two weeks a favorable reply is forthcoming if the department of education is satisfied with the credentials of the applicant, since only those connected with some educational work can obtain permission.

A GERMAN SCHOOL.

The Germans manifest their pride and interest in education by their fine school buildings. An elementary school in Munich, built five years ago, will give an idea of their modern school.

The building is a very attractive structure with many decorative details, including several balconies, which are changed into veritable hanging gardens during the summer. This school accomodates 1,500 pupils, boys and girls. There are about thirty class-rooms, each provided with a well-lighted and heated cloak room, which contains a wash stand. The kindergarten is in a separate two-story little house built in the playground. Both manual training and domestic science are provided for. Two indoor and one outdoor gymnasiums allow adequate room for physical training. An experiment room and small lecture hall are used for science. The principal's office, conference room and library are conveniently placed beside one another on the second or main floor. Well arranged and sanitary toilet rooms for pupils and teachers are found on every floor. The basement is at least five feet above ground, and contains playrooms, lunch rooms, engine rooms and laundry. There is also a large shower-bath accomodating twenty pupils, and twelve separate bath booths. Much attention is given to the ventilating, heating and lighting, especially the latter. Great thought is given to the proper coloring; such colors are used in the interior decoration of walls and woodwork as will not fatigue or hurt the eyes, and the artistic effect is ever kept in mind. The school is well equipped with adjustable furniture, and all necessary helps in

teaching, such as maps, charts, specimens, etc. The blackboards are always limited to two small spaces.

The cost of erecting this building was about $225,000. One such building is erected nearly every year.

In Germany every afternoon after school the playgrounds are used for recreation. In winter some of the playgrounds are arranged so that they can be flooded to provide skating; an instructor supervises this sport. Certain playgrounds are set apart to be used by the different grades at particular times; the attendance, however is optional. The Germans think that in teaching a new play in the right way and in the right spirit, they are adding both to the mental and moral culture of the child.

Departmental work is carried on to a great extent in the upper grades of the common schools, but in the lower classes one teacher remains with a class most of the time. There are only men teachers for the upper classes of both boys and girls, while women teachers instruct the lower classes of girls, and at times also the boys. Coeducation does not find favor in Germany.

The teachers are trained in seminaries. The course there lasts three years and is divided into three classes. The training really extends over six years, as the work in the seminary is preceded by three years in preparatory institutes. They have the duties and rights of civil servants, and as such enjoy various privileges as well as an assured and sufficient income and pension, since every teacher is considered a benefactor to the state. The official position carries with it dignity and self-respect. The German elementary teacher is somebody, and has a definite social standing. The impression gained from observing classwork in operation is that the teachers are well prepared for their work.

The course of study is fixed for all schools throughout the empire by ministerial authority. The detailed daily program is not arranged, but certain subjects of instruction, and the hours allowed to each, are provided for, and also the gradual development from grade to grade in proper order. To the principal and teacher is left the adaptation of this general plan, with a certain amount of freedom.

The hours of school attendance vary in different localities. In Berlin, they have but one session. The school hours vary for the different grades. The first grade pupils arrive at 9

o'clock and are dismissed at 12. The second grade pupils arrive at the same time and are dismissed at 1. The third and fourth grade pupils arrive at 8 o'clock and are dismissed at 1, although on two days a week they are permitted to go home one hour earlier. The fifth grade has two hours less than the sixth grade, and the two highest grades have two hours longer than the preceding grade and must attend two afternoons for one hour. These afternoons are devoted to music, drawing, physical training or any other study that does not require close application. In summer the schools open one hour earlier for all grades. It must not be forgotten that the German schools are open six days a week. During the daily session all grades have one hour set apart for recesses and pauses. Ten minutes are allowed at the end of each hour for the changing of teachers and classes, as the departmental system is used to give a few moments' freedom from restraint; no loud talking is allowed. At ten o'clock there is the bread and butter recess of twenty minutes. Both teachers and pupils go to the playgrounds if the weather permits, and if not they go into the corridors. At that time a luncheon, consisting of bread and meat, is eaten by both pupil and teacher. This seems to be necessary since the German people eat but a frugal breakfast of rolls and coffee, very early in the morning. At twelve o'clock there is another recess of twenty minutes taken, in the open air if possible. During these recesses the pupils are not allowed to be boisterous and romp at will. They must play quiet games or walk up and down the grounds, having perfect freedom but always orderly. Besides these pauses and recesses that are required by the ministerium, the teachers are all obliged to have free arm movements and breathing exercises during the recitation. Both the Germans and English are trying to guard against too much sitting in seats without change of position. This is a matter that our own most eminent educators and doctors are advocating.

The subjects taught are the same as ours including manual training, natural science, and domestic science.

GERMAN.

Writing with pen and ink is begun in the first grade. The books are wonderfully neat, and the writing is good. On ac-

count of the short school session much home work is required, including a certain number of lines written in the copy book at home. The penmanship is excellent in all schools. One system is taught and much attention is given to it.

Reading is taught by the phonetic method, which is especially successful in German. They use what is called a "reading machine," which consists of a large box filled with cards upon which are printed the sounds and combinations. This is similar to our Gordon system, but more complete.The German child masters the combinations rapidly. A class of six-year-old beginners who had attended school but six weeks, was already reading and writing fairly well. The reading is good throughout the schools. In the higher grades there is a noticeable feature in the reading books, the teaching of love of country, and pride in the achievements of the nation. They read clearly and with expression, and particular attention is given to clear enunciation and correct pronunciation. In connection with every study, especially composition, German literature is taught from the first grade. The pupils learn poem upon poem, and are required to recite them in an impressive manner, thus training the memory from childhood.

Composition is considered of great importance, as it is one of the three studies, including arithmetic and dictation, in which written examinations are required; the other subjects are tested orally. Composition is also taught in connection with literature so that the dramas of Schiller and Goethe become as familiar as everyday speech. The essays are all written in a book kept for the purpose, and corrected by the principal. They aim also to develop the thinking powers by requiring many original essays.

ARITHMETIC.

In arithmetic much mental work is required, and most intricate problems must be solved by this method. The Germans think this produces exactness. About the same work is required in the written arithmetic as in the higher grades. Primary arithmetic is for the most part oral.

HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY.

The pupil has no text-book in geography nor history. The lessons consist of lectures by the teacher, aided by well-made

globes, clear maps, and numerous large charts containing pictures of European countries with every natural feature shown, and historical places with battle-fields also carefully indicated. As in England, the German pupil is made familiar with the Eastern hemisphere both in geography and history, but is not well informed about the Western continent. A history lesson in the eighth grade was a good example of the reason for the lecture method. The teacher related the story and facts during the first half of the lesson period, and questioned the class during the remainder of the time. The accurate answers gave evidence of perfect attention. The answers were given in clear, distinct tones and complete sentences, and could be heard by all. This training of the hearing and forming of habits of attention is begun when the child enters school. The Germans realize that this is the keynote of their powers of concentration. Thoroughness is their great aim. The pupils are required to write essays on their lessons, making a book of the consecutive essays.

DRAWING.

Drawing is considered of great importance, and much time is devoted to it from the kindergarten to the university. It is correlated as much as possible with all other studies. The Germans think it trains the mind as well as the eye, and that it is as great an aid to the reasoning powers as is logic or mathematics. Besides, it tends to develop in a pronounced degree a sense for the harmonious and beautiful. Drawing is correlated as much as possible with nature study. In this study much observation is encouraged. Many rambles are taken to the nearby woods and parks, of which so many are accessible to every German city. Children are instilled with a love of the beautiful in nature, as is shown by the window boxes and blossoming plants seen in every home, no matter how humble, and in the tiniest of garden plots.

DOMESTIC SCIENCE.

Sewing, knitting, and needlework are taught to all grades. In the upper grades the pupils fashion garments for themselves, and pay for the material used. Only the eighth grade is permitted to take cooking lessons.

MANUAL TRAINING.

Manual training is first taught with a view to training the hand; no expensive, extravagant machinery is used. Later on, the work is made more technical. It is said that "the commercial supremacy of Germany can be directly traced to its diversified system of trade, industrial, technical, and commercial colleges. Although a poor country in natural resources she has, by thoroughly educating her industrial army in mechanics, arts, and sciences, in a short period won a leading position in the world's commerce."

MUSIC.

Music is most carefully taught, much care being given to tone quality. Difficult selections are learned and sung in the upper grades; part singing is taught, and many old folk songs and hymns are sung.

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION.

Religious instruction is given daily. The German insists that religious teaching to be effective must be dogmatic. The law carefully provides for this by making the schools denominational and separate for children of each confession. The children receive religious instruction from teachers of their own confession. The instruction is divided into Bibical history and catechism, three hours a week being given to the former and two to the latter.

OBSERVATIONS.

It is very difficult to make comparisons between our democratic education and that of England, where class distinctions are recognized to such a great extent. In America conditions are such that each child has a right to expect the best education he is willing to receive, which is provided by the state in which he resides, without expense to him. The schools of England are somewhat retarded in progress by customs that have been established for centuries; but everywhere we were told that the school system is at present in a state of transition. What the outcome of the changes in view will be, is a question that we shall watch with exceeding interest. The English teachers are striving to meet problems that confront them, with an energy and intensity of purpose that should certainly be productive of vast improvement in the future education of their people.

The school authority is supreme in the English system and brooks no interference even from the parents. The teaching profession is more respected in the United States than it is in England. This makes a difference in the spirit of the teachers.

Our people have more enthusiasm for the public school, as is shown in our more sanitary buildings and in the more adequate equipment. Ours is the school used and supported by everybody in common, and not founded by some philanthropist or charitable society. In England pupils over fourteen years of age do not receive much consideration. Children are educated within their class. It is exceedingly difficult for a boy to rise above the class of society to which his father belongs.

The High School for Girls at Manchester, and many other schools, divide each class, or form, into three or four divisions, according to the work of the pupils. Those in the first division may read twice as much Latin, etc., as those in the third division.

We do not believe that the American child acquires as much book knowledge as the English child, but he seems to be able to put the knowledge gained to more practical use. Perhaps we could accept just criticism from the English teachers, however,

in that we attempt too much and do not dwell upon subjects taught long enough to attain any degree of perfection.

The studies of the elementary school of England do not prepare for the studies of the secondary school. This, together with the high tuition fees and class distinctions, almost compels the boys and girls to go out into life at the age of fourteen. The memory has been exercised, but there has been no proper training of the reflective faculties, by whose activities general principles are discovered and rules of conduct are constructed.

There is not the sympathy between the teacher and pupil in the English schools that there is in ours; and for that reason the English teacher is not so successful in developing self-expression and in encouraging inquiry as the American teacher. The English child is placed in the background, and he does not receive full consideration until he has finished his educational course and is ready to enter upon the duties of life. This is in strong contrast to the position occupied by the American child, both in the family and in school, where he is foremost to such an extent that he often presumes beyond his privileges. If these extreme attitudes toward the child could be tempered, we should come nearer to Emerson's idea that "The secret of education lies in respecting the pupil."

The American child is more self-reliant. Our teachers push the child out and let it test its oars. Our pupils stand up and recite what they have studied in their text-books or in books of reference. On this point Miss Burstall of the Manchester High School, for Girls says, in her excellent book, "Impressions of American Education in 1908": "Probably we teachers do too much in England, especially in girls' schools, but in our heavier, duller atmosphere, and our depressing climate, our young people need waking up, guiding and driving, more than boys and girls in the invigorating air of New England and the West".

We regret that we had less than five weeks in which to make our observations. No doubt our report is open to criticism. While the school authorities of Great Britain did much for us we were confronted with new terms, with a seeming lack of uniform plan or system, with many local conditions, and with other perplexing problems. Not all of our commission could investigate everything in this report. No one saw the working

out of all the plans described. The best work of a school cannot be judged by what the occasional visitor may see done in the school; the real test is what the children may do after they leave school. We feel that we can do no better than to quote from so eminent an educator as Dr. M. E. Sadler, of the University of Manchester, who says in his "American Ideals in Education": "England stands half-way, as it were, between the American and the German ideals. She seeks to combine freedom and authority; experiment and tradition; modern studies and classical; interest and discipline; supervision from above and a large measure of local variety and self-government. She finds much to admire in German education, and in American. In the former, its extraordinary precision of aim, its high intellectual standards, its wide diffusion and convenience of access; in the latter, its verve, its belief in its own future, its intense vitality, its incessant experimenting, its courage, and its readiness to take stock of itself and to adjust itself to new needs. They, on the other hand, find much to admire in our best educational tradition: in its fairness of mind; in its personal devotion to the welfare of the boys and girls committed to its charge; in its strong ethical tradition; in its conviction that, unless ballasted by a strong moral character, intellectual brilliancy is a mischievous thing; and, not least, in its belief that the highest kind of scholarship is that which translates itself into wise action and unselfishly embodies itself in the corporate life of some great institution."

Statistics from sixteen cities of the United States, especially Springfield, Mass., show that these cities hold a very much greater proportion of pupils in the elementary and secondary schools than do Manchester and Berlin, and these two cities are probably the best in their respective countries. In fact the proportion of pupils in the schools of these cities at most ages is greater than the proportionate number enrolled in all the elementary, intermediate, secondary, and continuation schools put together, in Berlin. However there are 15,000 in trade schools that are not included in this proportion. Up to the age of fourteen, practically all children in Prussia are in school, and nearly all in England. Beginning with the fourteenth year, however, less than fifteen per cent. are in the elementary and secondary schools. Since we have more of the pupils during the period when the re-

flective faculties are being formed and trained, are we giving these the best start in life and are we training them to be self-supporting, the first step toward self-respect?

Sir Alfred Mosely in his report of the Mosely Commission in 1903, gives his own personal observations along with the educators. He says: "One of the things that struck me, all through the United States, was the large amount of money devoted to educational purposes, the buildings being magnificent and the equipment lavish. The teachers seem fired with enthusiasm, and there is a thirst for knowledge, shown by pupils of all ages, that is largely lacking in our country. In contrast to our education, which has to a large extent been "classical," I found that in America it is the "practical" subjects that are principally taught, and technical classes and schools are to be found everywhere. There are also excellent opportunities for those going into the professions to take up classical subjects. American boys remain at school much longer than is the case here; often, in addition, passing through to the secondary schools and colleges at little or no expense to their parents or themselves. My observations lead me to believe that the average American boy, when he leaves school, is infinitely better fitted for his vocation and struggle in life than the English boy, and in consequence there are in the United States a smaller proportion of "failures," and fewer who slide downhill and eventually join the pauper, criminal, or "submerged tenth" class. The aim of education in America is to make every boy fit for some definite calling in life, and my own experience leads me to think that nearly every lad, if properly trained, *is* fit for something."

Respectfully submitted,

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